DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 103 771 CG 009 645

AUTHOR Graham, Grace

TITLE Improving Student Participation. New Directions for

Student Councils, Number 7.

INSTITUTION National Association of Secondary School Principals,

Washington, D.C.

PUB DATE 66

NOTE 54p.: For related documents, see CG 009 641-652

AVAILABLE FROM The National Association of Secondary School

Principals, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D.

C. 20036 (HC-\$1.00)

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.76 HC Not Available from EDRS..PLUS POSTAGE DESCRIPTORS Cocurricular Activities; Intellectual Development;

Interests: Pamphlets: Role Perception: *School

Activities: Secondary Education: *Social Development;

*Student Government; *Student Needs; *Student

Participation

ABSTRACT

High student participation in the activity program has to be a goal of every secondary school administrator and activities adviser. After all, the activities program cannot perform its valuable function unless it meets the interests of as many students as possible. High participation, however, is easier to state as a goal than to achieve in practice. The administrator, the adviser, and the student officer all have important roles to play in stimulating participation, and all ought to be alert to the emotional and intellectual needs of a variety of students. To help explain some of the aspects of this problem, the National Association of Student Councils presents this booklet—the seventh in its series of New Directions for Student Councils. (Author/PC)





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Improving Student Participation

BY
GRACE GRAHAM
Professor of Education
University of Oregon

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036



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1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

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The writer wishes to thank Harold E May and Alphonse D. Selinger, doctoral candidates at the University of Oregon, for critical reading of the text and Constance B. Bordwell, a colleague, for editorial assistance.



Foreword

HIGH STUDENT PARTICIPATION in the activity program has to be a goal of every secondary school administrator and activities adviser. After all, the activities program cannot perform its valuable functions unless it meets the interests of as many students as possible.

But high participation is easier to state as a goal than to achieve in practice. The administrator, the adviser, and the student officer all have important roles to play in stimulating participation, and all ought to be alert to the emotional and intellectual needs of a variety of students.

To help explain some of the aspects of this problem, the National Association of Student Councils presents this booklet, *Improving Student Participation*, the seventh in its series of New Directions for Student Councils.

We wish to thank Grace Graham, the author; Gerald M. Van Pool, Director of Student Activities for the National Association of Secondary School Principals; and Richard P. Harland, of the NASSP editorial staff, who edited the manuscript and saw it through to publication.

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS

Secretary
National Association of Student Councils
Executive Secretary
National Association of Secondary School Principals



Improving Student Participation

More and Better Participation

OST OF US who have been associated with student activities can cite pupils' remarks such as this: "What Mrs. Swarthout (the activity director) really does is to make us see our own possibilities as people. You get some idea about what you can do when someone like her cares and is willing to let you go out on a limb." 1

We all know a John Smith who was said to have been diverted from delinquency by his high school coach. We know a shy child who blossomed after being cast in a role in a school play, a student council leader who demonstrated maturity and wisdom as the year progressed, a quarterback from an underprivileged home who gained social acceptance through his athletic prowess. We know pupils whose interests are broadened and deepened, like those of a student editor who recently interviewed the writer about why pupils drop out of school.

Furthermore, we can cite evidence (other than anecdotal) that the co-curriculum * increases loyalty to the school. For example, after a detailed study of ten schools, James Coleman reports in *The Adolescent Society* that those active in student affairs as well as those intrinsically interested in academic work are "school-oriented." ² Although he does not regard the co-



^{*} The terms "student activities," "co-curriculum," "student affairs," and "extraclass activities," as used in this pamphlet, are synonymous.

corricular method of encouraging school consciousness as highly as he does the academic, he would agree that those who are school-oriented tend to stay in school until they graduate. Conversely, lack of participation in student activities is a significant characteristic of school dropouts. A recent study ³ found that slightly more than two-thirds of the dropouts did not take part in a single activity. This study also found significant differences between the dropouts and those who remained in school with respect to those serving in leadership roles. Only 2 of 212 dropouts held positions of leadership, but almost half of the non-dropouts held student offices.

Actually, very few evaluative studies of the co-curriculum have been reported. But what do authors of such studies as there are have to say? Do they justify advocates' claims for student activities? One researcher concludes from a study of seniors in a sample of 30 high schools in Minnesota that "many schools are failing to use the extracurricular activities to promote the development of adult and mature personalities. . . ." ⁴ Another researcher, after studying six-year high schools in Indiana, charges that "Administrators and sponsors do not adequately understand the purpose of the activities that are being offered and they are not prepared to sponsor or control these activities." ⁵

Still another study reports that 2,061 seniors and 180 teachers in 16 Texas schools rated the activity program as "above average value" in meeting youth needs pertaining to socialization, mental health, reasoning ability, guidance, and preparation for future education. (These findings reinforce professional opinion of the value of activities in social development and pupil morale and refute the notion that clear thinking and academic preparation take place only in classrooms.) They rated the program as "average value" in contributing to physical health, life in the natural and scientific environments, choice of occupation, and use of leisure. They did not rate the program "lower than average" in meeting any of the educational needs of youth. Pupile rated its contribution to aesthetics as "above average value," whereas teachers rated the same contribution only "average value." In general, boys rated the value of activi-



ties lower than girls did and Negroes rated their value higher than white children did.⁶ Although the findings in this last study justified more favorable conclusions about extraclass activities than did the first two, they all fall short of substantiating the claim that many writers make for these activities.

These investigations support the conclusion that the cocurriculum is not living up to its potential as a very important influence in the lives of young people. Other data suggest the same conclusion. For instance, it is estimated that only 65 percent of all pupils take an active part in student affairs. In most schools, then, a third or more of the students are influenced very little, if at all, by participation in the co-curriculum. Probably no more than 30 percent participate at a level that will make the experience truly significant. Unfortunately, the third who do not participate are usually those who would stand to benefit the most from the activity program, and the fifth who are the most involved probably have the least to learn from it.

Over twenty years ago August Hollingshead concluded that the largest percentage of non-participants among Elmtown's Youth came from homes in the lowest socioeconomic levels and the largest percentage of participants came from homes in the highest socioeconomic levels. Many later studies confirmed his findings. In the last few years, however, the situation has changed somewhat in that many working-class boys and girls attending predominantly working-class high schools have become active in student activities. This change in the social origins of participants reflects the increasing homogeneity in social class of American urban schools and the growing affluence of the working class, which enables pupils from these homes to dress stylishly and to acquire the accouterments so important to teenagers. Nevertheless, the disturbing probability is that students who come from poor homes lacking in social niceties will not participate in the extraclass programs of most schools.

In general, then, pupils who are socially disadvantaged do not participate. But neither do those who are shy, poorly adjusted, and immature for their age level. Those who have sampled the dangerous thrills and forbidden fruits of delin-



quency usually scorn school activities as too tame for their taste. Of course, not all pupils who show little interest in the co-curriculum are either delinquent or shy or socially disadvantaged; some have rewarding interests and hobbies of their own outside of school. Excepting these young people who have no special need for school activities, it is generally true that adolescents who most need activities participate the least, and those who least need them participate the most.

Among the most active participants are teenagers who live in middle-class suburbs. They are the same young people who are being pushed to make good grades in order to qualify for the "right" colleges. Poised, suave, adept in social graces, many of them have already acquired a knowledge of "how to get along with others," a characteristic highly prized by their parents. Yet in many schools they are caught up in a mad round of social activities rather than working in a program designed to increase their social sensitiveness and concern for those less fortunate than themselves.

As has been pointed out, a school's activity program often has three great shortcomings: (1) it fails to achieve its stated purposes in any substantial degree; (2) it fails to attract a significant student minority group; and (3) it makes unwarranted demands, especially in middle-class suburbia, upon pupils' time in programs that are more recreational than educational. If we admit these weaknesses, those of us who believe in the potential of the co-curriculum must face the necessity of improving the quality of participation and providing for more of it—in short, better participation and more of it.

"Better participation" implies participation that encourages pupils to develop mature personalities and insight and to improve their knowledge and skills; "more of it" means participation that involves more pupils.

A school's faculty and administrators should not recruit pupils for extraclass activities if they, the teachers and administrators, are not concerned about the quality of experiences offered by these activities and do not view them as important to the school's total educational program. Some educators believe that pupils are more likely to improve their human rela-



tionships and to learn to behave democratically in extraclass activities than they are in classes. The informality of a voluntary association and its role requirements are conducive to these results, but capable leadership is an essential ingredient in significant student accomplishment. Without a competent adviser, an activity may become a waste of time or at best a recreational outlet, and at a time when community recreational programs—often led by persons who are better trained than teachers in recreational leadership—are readily available in most towns and cities, the desirability of school activities that have no educational purposes is questionable.

If school personnel wish to enroll more pupils in student activities and ensure that all of them learn valuable skills, they will plan an activity program with two major purposes in mind:
(1) helping pupils master the skills of human relationships and
(2) providing pupils practice in behaving democratically. The program must also rest upon a sound philosophical base. It must have clearly understood objectives, and it must be in line with reasonable assumptions about adolescent needs and de-

There are a number of important generalizations about adolescents which a school staff should take account of as it goes about trying to promote more and better participation in student activities.

sirable educational practices.

GENERALIZATIONS ABOUT ADOLESCENTS

(1) Teenagers have three basic needs: to be recognized and praised; to "belong"; and to enjoy the companionship of peers.

During adolescence young people learn to become independent by moving away from the family circle. In our society they cannot move directly from childhood into adulthood as they can in some primitive societies. Our economic system requires a prolonged period of adolescence during which youths are often treated as children and are not accorded the status of adults. This they resent. Only in a peer group can a teenager find recognition as a person of equal status.

Teenager polls, letters to teenage magazines, and talks with teenagers indicate that they have great need for acceptance by



their classmates, for "belonging," for having a girl friend or a boy friend, that as many as a fourth of them feel "left out," and that if they are not accepted, they may be too unhappy to concentrate on intellectual interests. Not until an adolescent has gained the security that comes from being one of the "gang," does he become concerned about whether he has the inner resources to become a person who will make valuable contributions to his society.

(2) A teenage peer group helps to mold the personality of its members.

Although a teenager's attempt to gain independence often results in conflict with parental and teacher authority, he usually conforms willingly to the diffused controls of his peer group. This conformity is the price he pays for belonging. Thus, he tends to become what his friends want him to be.

(3) When adolescents feel secure, they usually perform better in academic as well as in social activities.

This generalization admittedly has some limitations; for example, sometimes individuals over-compensate for lack of friends by driving for academic achievement. Nevertheless, most young people are unable to do their best academically when excluded from peer groups because they are emotionally insecure.

(4) When adolescents form a cohesive group, they develop high morale.

Researchers in group dynamics state this as if it were an incontrovertible fact. Common sense suggests it may be true only in some cases, for both high morale and low morale are contagious in cohesive groups. For school purposes, however, it is certainly easier to develop high morale in cohesive groups than among free-wheeling individuals or among cliques.

High morale breeds confidence; confidence makes achievement more likely. When pupils feel their school is the best in academic accomplishments, athletic affairs, community service, or any other aspect of the school's program, they will work hard to keep it so.

(5) Adolescents learn many of the skills of cooperative endeavor through peer associations.



Cooperation is another part of the price of membership in a peer group. Not always a virtue, as in the case of delinquent gangs, cooperation is—when properly directed—a social skill valuable in everyday affairs, community development, and democratic government.

(6) Adolescents learn to be adults by association with adults.

An unnatural development that has come with prolonged adolescence is the separation of young people, often biologically and socially mature but still economically dependent, from the mainstream of adult concerns. A push-and-pull force is operating: the young are pushed out, they pull away.

Young people need adults with whom they can identify. They need adult models to emulate. They need to feel accepted as worthy of respect. Adults need youth's vigor and enthusiasm; youth needs adult wisdom and experience. Some cooperative or partnership activities are good for both groups.

(7) Adolescents become responsible by being given responsibility.

This widely held belief has seldom been rigorously tested. (The findings of at least one study refute it by revealing that the single most important factor accounting for an adolescent's being responsible is his having responsible parents.) The lack of testing is the result, it appears, of our unwillingness actually to give responsibility to teenagers. In directing student activities many sponsors, especially those who are young and inexperienced, enjoy holding the reins of authority tightly. They also want praise, not blame, for outcomes. They are afraid to give students responsibility lest they prove irresponsible, as, of course, they may very well do.

(8) Adolescents learn to make sound decisions by practice in decision-making.

This is another belief to which most principals and sponsors pay lip service, but which they rarely test. They fear repercussions from the community if teenagers make the wrong decisions. They fail to designate areas in which pupils are free to make decisions, even bad decisions, and they fail to inform parents and others of what responsibilities have been turned over to teenagers and why they were given these responsibilities.



GENERALIZATIONS ABOUT THE CO-CURRICULUM

There is a corresponding set of generalizations about extraclass activities that grow out of beliefs about adolescents and what has educational value for them. Obviously, not all educational needs of pupils can be met in either the curriculum or the co-curriculum; other social agencies must also educate. Nevertheless, the school is the appropriate agent to impart certain kinds of knowledge. For instance, the school should educate for some creative uses of leisure. Whether it should also make provision for recreational activities that have no goals other than diversion and entertainment probably depends upon whether the school is the only agency in a community that is able to make these provisions.

It is not to be presumed that all objectives of either formal or informal education can be implemented in extraclass activities. But the co-curriculum can make a special kind of contribution to students' development.

(1) Extraclass activities more nearly approximate the kind of learning found in intimate peer groups than do class activities.

What a student learns in an intimate, face-to-face primary group is very different from what he learns in a formal secondary group, such as a class. Learning in the primary group, on the one hand, is incidental to the activity; it is the do-it-yourself kind of learning with a minimum of direction from anyone. One friend might show another how, but neither seeks formal instruction. In this kind of learning, a pupil and his peers try their hands at various tasks. Each one wants to succeed and is delighted when he does, but nobody makes a formal judgment of anybody's achievement. Nevertheless, a student may be ostracized if he fails to measure up to the group's standards.

Learning in a secondary group, on the other hand, is formalized—contractual, you might say. In most adolescent secondary groups, learning is the purpose of the activity. An instructor directs and students earn rewards in terms of achievement. In such an environment, a pupil could conceivably learn



as much by competing with his peers as by working with them. They cannot oust him from the group if they don't like him or if he fails to meet their standards.

Both kinds of learning are, of course, equally important to a teenager.

(2) Student activities make a substantial contribution to counseling and guidance.

The extraclass situation encourages the development of close personal relations between advisers and pupils—relations which, for valid reasons, are less likely to develop in the classroom. A high school teacher who meets 125 to 150 pupils in five or six different classes has little opportunity to get to know pupils intimately; in contrast, in the informal give-and-take of an extraclass activity, he can work with pupils in a setting conducive to rapport. This rapport enables him to counsel and guide them informally. The mutual understanding and warmth that develop between sponsor and pupil often carry over into the formal classroom, where they soften the judge-and-the-judged relationship that is an inescapable part of teacher-pupil roles.

(3) A student activity can meet the need to "belong," especially for an adolescent who is not a member of a peer group.

This observation, it must be said, is not an infallible guide. An extraclass activity should not be made up solely of members of a clique. Yet, as soon as outsiders and an adviser join any primary group, it loses to some extent its primary group characteristics. Only if intimacy and acceptance develop among all its members can the group meet adolescent needs; and the non-member of the group may have difficulty in gaining acceptance.

(4) The kinds of recognition and rewards for achievement that student activities provide are psychologically satisfying.

Certain activities such as athletics, school newspapers, and plays have built-in systems of recognition and reward in that games are played, newspapers are published, and shows go on. Participants are emotionally involved in the result and psychologically satisfied when the activity is successful. Members



of the student council, too, can often point to tangible achievements.

Not all activities have such outcomes. The goals of the activity may be so dispersed and unclear that participants and others seldom know when or whether goals have been achieved. This lack of meaningful achievements and recognizable short term goals is the crux of the problem of motivation.

(5) A teacher can change his role from that of a director of instruction to that of an adviser who helps teenagers improve their personal relationships, democratic behavior, and achievement in a student activity.

As already indicated, teachers are accused of not understanding the philosophy and the purposes of extraclass activities. Without such understanding, they cannot be expected to play a role that differs considerably from the role they play in the classroom. When they understand the differences, flexible and well-informed teachers are likely to succeed in changing roles.

(6) The administration and faculty can establish a favorable school atmosphere by working with pupils in class and extraclass activities.

This suggests that adolescents are "eager beavers," ready and willing to adopt whatever attitudes and behavior patterns school officials prefer—in short, that the young can be easily "molded." But teenagers are not clay. They are flesh and blood with minds of their own, and many of them are suspicious and stubborn. A principal and teachers cannot establish a positive climate of opinion without the help of student leaders. But faculty members can identify and analyze—in class and extraclass activities—the values that Americans prize, and they can lead and influence by personal example.

The chief reason that educators often fail to develop basic ethical attitudes in students is that they have never seriously considered what kind of attitudes they want to inculcate.

(7) Students are likely to learn more about some kinds of human relationships and democratic behavior in extracluss than in class activities.



Extraclass activities require the kind of teamwork that is less likely to be encouraged in formal high school classes. To function as a member of a team, one has to internalize the expectations of others, subordinate one's personal interests to the good of the group, and learn how to interact amicably with others. Cooperation replaces competition. The individual is praised for his contribution to group goals.

The individual not only develops a concern for group goals but he also shares in making decisions about what goals are chosen and what methods are used to achieve them He learns the give-and-take of practical politics, the need for compromise to attain the greatest good for all concerned.

(8) Students learn to apply skills acquired in classes and to explore knowledge in depth.

Applying skills learned in dramatics, music, physical education, journalism, foreign language, and other classes in appropriate activities supplements what has been learned in these classes. Unlike an adviser of an activity, a classroom teacher can rarely challenge pupils so much that they work voluntarily after school is out. Regular class periods also seldom provide time in which to study fields of knowledge in depth. The Roman dinner sponsored by a Latin Club may teach pupils more about Roman dress, food, etiquette, and customs than they would learn from hours of classroom discussion. Members of a Physics Club who visit an electronics plant, or of a History Club who interview local pioneers, or of a Biology Club who collect fossils, are deepening their understandings of academic disciplines.



Improving
Student
Participation

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The Administration's Role

T A RECENT CONFERENCE, a high school principal stated that participation in extraclass activities in his school was "heavy." He said that a check of the high school yearbook showed that almost every senior had at least two activities to his credit. Student activities in this school may indeed have attracted widespread, intensive interest among pupils, but the principal's method of evaluation was too casual to support his assertion. He needed answers to such questions as these: How many pupils dropped out of school before their senior year? In how many activities were they enrolled? Were members of organizations members in name only? What goals had each association achieved? How many students had positions of leadership? How many of them actively shouldered responsibility in an activity?

Like this principal, many school people have little or no authentic evidence either of the extent or of the quality of pupil participation in extraclass activities. They will not find statements about participation in schools other than their own very useful because variations are wide and neither national nor regional norms are available. Despite these limitations, a few generalizations about conditions that inhibit participation can be drawn from research studies, descriptive accounts, and statements of experts. Let's look at some of these generalizations and decide how the quantitative and qualitative dimensions of participation can be improved.



MORE EVALUATION A REOUISITE

Before a principal and his faculty can aim for better participation, they need to know how many pupils are participating. Such statistics usually can be obtained relatively easily from school records. But what about the quality of participation? Quality is more difficult to ascertain than quantity, especially if no statement of objectives exists. If the school is like two-thirds of the high schools in Oklahoma, which have no statements, a first step is to determine appropriate objectives to use as criteria for evaluation. Hearn's pamphlet on Evaluation of Student Activities will help with this task and in other aspects of evaluation.

A program should be evaluated yearly if its quality is to be maintained. And since the quality of a program largely determines the extent and quantity of participation, quality must be preserved else participation will suffer.

SMALLER UNITS FAVOR PARTICIPATION

Experts state with some assurance (1) that the larger the unit, the smaller the proportion of pupils who are likely to be active in school affairs, and (2) that pupil involvement will be less intense in the larger unit. Likewise, the smaller the unit, the greater the extent of pupils participation and involvement. These generalizations are valid when "unit" refers to the entire school and when it refers to a single activity group.

Roger Barker and Paul Gump found in studying Kansas schools that students in small schools joined more activities and a much larger proportion of them held positions of importance and responsibility than did students in large schools.⁹ A less ambitious survey of the extent of participation in selected Oregon schools reached the same conclusion. Still another study of 37 high schools in communities ranging in size from open country to cities just under 100,000 population showed that pupils valued the activity program in inverse relation to the size of the community.¹⁰

These findings are not unexpected. In a sense, the small school is comparable to what social scientists call the primary



group Gemeinschaft (community), or folk society; the large school is comparable to what they call the secondary group, Gesellschaft (society or association), or urban society. The former kind of association is characterized by intimate, face-to-face association and cooperation; the latter by impersonal, contractual formal, and rational relationships. Not only in schools but also in other urban institutions, primary associations are being replaced by secondary relationships. The results, we are warned, are increased feelings of alienation and powerlessness on the part of many individuals.

Such feelings, especially inimical to the mental health of children and adolescents, form emotional blocks to learning and generate hostility toward schools as well as reducing participation in school affairs.

The feelings of rootlessness and anonymity that children in a large school may have can be lessened by making the school smaller. The large school can be divided into small schools, each with its own name, principal, faculty, counselors, student body, curriculum and co-curriculum, colors, songs, and other symbols of identification. A high school of 10,000 pupils, for instance, might become 15 schools with 650 pupils in each or a school with 3,000 pupils might become 5 schools with 600 pupils in each. This so-called house plan is gaining considerable acceptance among large schools in all parts of our country.

The division of a large school into small schools multiplies by the number of schools created, the number of student councils, clubs, newspapers, athletic teams, school plays, etc. Smaller schools facilitate intramural activities of all sort. They provide opportunities for more pupils to become leaders and active participants. In small schools, young people are more likely to be easily drawn into school activities and to become contributing members of them. For them, being a big fish in a little pond is psychologically more satisfying than being little fish in a big pond.

Just as the large school by its very nature discourages participation, so does the large club or association discourage participation. Many high schools and colleges, that once had



associations to which all boys or all girls or substantial numbers of students belonged, are now wisely abandoning these disfunctional organizations. Specialists in group dynamics say that the larger the group, the less opportunity for each member to speak or to con ibute to the group and the greater the chance of unfriendly relations developing among members. The optimum size of a group will vary, of course, depending upon the task, age and other characteristics of members, skill of leaders, and so on.

Obviously, school administrators cannot limit the size of activity groups to a handful of pupils but they can help advisers in several ways to break large groups into smaller, more productive units. They may recruit parents or college students to serve as aides to advisers. They may arrange schedules so that older adolescents may help the advisers working with younger children. They may encourage leadership classes for training potential student leaders to work effectively in small groups.

BETTER INFORMED FACULTY BASIC

Writers commonly complain that advisers and administrators do not fully understand the philosophy and purposes of extraclass activities and do not know how to advise student groups. They often say that teacher-training programs inadequately prepare teachers for their roles in the co-curriculum. Even if teacher education fully meets its responsibilities in this regard, the administration of the individual school still needs to build an effective activity program for that particular school.

There are a number of steps that experience has shown are likely to contribute noticeably to the development of a quality program.

(1) Appoint a director of student activities. In a large school enrolling 1,500 pupils or more, he should devote his full time to the job; in smaller schools, he should be freed from teaching duties in relation to the number of pupils served. W. Al Grass suggests the following ratio as a minimum guide. 11



	"Free" Pe	riods
Students	per da	y
100- 250	1	
250- 500	
800-1000	4	
000-1500	5	

The major duties and responsibilities of a director of activities as defined by the California Association of Directors of Activities were published in the NASSP Bulletin for October 1964, pages 77-79. The list is useful, specific, and inclusive. It does not, however, convey as clear a feeling of the climate that an effective director can help establish as does David Mallery in his book, High School Students Speak Out. He describes the work of the director of activities in "City High School" with a student body of 1600 girls in these words:

The school's non-academic activities looked to me fairly standard on paper. Where they did not seem standard was in the many ways the students were given genuine responsibility. Responsibility was expected in the auditorium, study halls, the cafeteria, even in classrooms at the start of each period when a teacher was late or absent. The teacher in charge of school activities—I will call her Mrs. Swarthout was the kind who was willing to work twenty-four hours a day for the good of the students, just as was the man who had the leadership class in one of the schools I visited earlier. Here again was someone who gave dignity to work on a newspaper, or interest in a student council project-dignity to a student trying to carry out her responsibility in organizing a class party, or to a group working to bring the school into community service. She hoped to stretch the students as far as possible in the kind of responsibility they could take and in ways that counted to them. She explained: "I try to make sure the girls see the three different areas of responsibility-those of the school administration, of the faculty, and of the students themselves. You can't play at this and pretend the girls are responsible where they are really not. You couldn't possibly get away with it anyway. They'd see through it in a minute!"



She was also constantly on the lookout to find opportunities for service, contribution, or creative action from students who weren't in the midst of things in school. I heard about this often from shy, appreciative students who felt "worth something around school."

Mrs. Swarthout devotes all her time to student activities, except for one class of her own. This work, as I had seen in other schools, requires far more than "full time" if the school is serious about genuine responsibility for its students. Results like those at City High are not likely to be obtained if the person in charge is indifferent or unimaginative. But even though he is admirably suited to meet the challenge, he will have a hard time doing anything impressive if he must struggle in a sea of clerical work, heavy classroom teaching, coaching, and committee work.

A teacher such as Mrs. Swarthout is not regarded as a "nice extra" in this school. She clearly represents a major part of the experience the school offers. This is worth emphasizing, since City High is geared for ambitious academic effort and has a tradition of high academic achievement. There is no rift here between academic standards and participation in school activities.¹²

(2) Select a faculty committee on student activities. In collaboration with the administration, the committee advises the director of activities, the faculty, and students on matters of the co-curriculum. It prepares for faculty consideration policy statements that are outcomes of faculty, administrator, student, or committee thinking. The committee also assumes general supervision of activities and responsibility for carrying out systematic evaluations of them. It carefully delineates areas of administrative, faculty, and student responsibilities.

These concerns of the committee are also of concern to students. Because students do share them and can contribute to the solutions of problems of policy, supervision, and evaluation, they are often represented on college committees on student activities. Having pupils on faculty committees is not common in secondary schools, but the practice has much to commend it. Adolescents need to become partners with adults in both school and community activities. Such associations help



them move from childhood to responsible maturity. (Adults can also benefit from such association.)

When the committee does its work faithfully, the co-curriculum is greatly strengthened. The committee's statements and clarifications of area of responsibility form guidelines within which pupils are free to act independently. Pupils do not call democracy in schools a sham when they know that within certain limits they can and do make decisions.

In addition to clarifying policy and student responsibilities, the committee, through its evaluations, is able to cut deadwood out of the co-curriculum. The result is that pupils are much more likely to participate because they can use initiative in carrying out work that they deem worth doing.

(3) Encourage in-service training of faculty members for their roles as advisers of activities. The director of activities and the committee may bring in consultants to help in this training. Most sessions, however, are more productive if directed discussions or discussions following lectures are used rather than lectures by experts without discussion. The agenda of meetings can include a number of different topics, but at the outset the school's philosophy for the co-curriculum should be agreed upon and stated in writing. After the faculty articulates this philosophy, it becomes one of the vital parts of orientation programs for new faculty. It underlies all decisions to be made about the practical everyday problems of the co-curriculum and its evaluation. Techniques of training leaders, the use of school library's resources in the co-curriculum, the integration of the co-curriculum with the curriculum—all these and others are also subjects of general interest to all members of the faculty.

The objectives of the in-service program are to weld the curriculum to the co-curriculum, to encourage faculty leadership, and to develop skills and techniques useful in the co-curriculum. A faculty united in objectives can guide pupils in developing programs that reflect the standards of the school itself. Mallery found the girls at City High often referred to "the intangible spirit of City High."

But the "intangible spirit" that permeates a school is not



always an idyllic one. A school without a philosophy, without a faculty united by common ideals and goals, may unwittingly sponsor an activity program that is harshly competitive and cutthroat. Gordon describes the fierce rivalry among several girls campaigning for election as Yearbook Queen in one high school. They gave pajama parties to help make them popular with girls, flirted with boys to win their votes, and tried to entice "big wheel" boys to go steady with them. A senior who was a Maid of the Queen's Court made this comment on the girls' conduct:

As the time for nomination approached, any tactics were used. You might say it was looked upon in this way. All is fair in love and war and getting a place on the Coronation Court. Of course, Constance [one of the competitors] did not use such tactics. The very best of friends began to tell tales which they had profoundly promised never to release. Often false rumors were spread in order to destroy confidence. The boiling point was reached about three days before nomination and then almost anything happened.¹³

He asked 100 seniors to rate the 50 organizations in the school in terms of prestige. With a few exceptions, he found a high degree of consensus on the relative status of these groups. For instance, girls rated cheerleading higher than did boys; boys rated wrestling higher than did girls. As one would expect, officers in organizations were rated higher than were members. Gordon concludes that in this high school the "dominant orientation to action was toward the performance of those roles that gained prestige" and that "the system of student organizations performed the function of differentiating the students into a prestige hierarchy." He found that a student's social position in school was less significantly related to academic achievement than to his participation in extraclass activities. As a consequence, the social environment of the school was highly competitive.

Probably tugs of war among some students for prestigious positions are common in all high schools. What should a school staff do about the situation? Although we admit the existence of a competitive, status-minded adult society that is



often reflected in the school's social structure, we believe that somehow schools should operate differently.

PARTICIPATION AND LEADERSHIP

The prevailing climates of opinion in these two schools didn't just happen. The most important single factor that spells the difference between an activity program that brings out the best and one that brings out the worst in young people is the school's leadership.

The principal is, of course, the key person. His attitude toward extraclass activities determines to a large extent the kind of program that can be developed. He selects the director of activities and the committee on student activities, approves the choice of advisers, arranges a time and place for activities to meet, and delegates responsibility to staff and students. His indifference may lead to chaos, his dictation negates decision-making by pupils, his refusal to assign tasks to others results in inefficiency. Of even greater importance, his attitude sets the tone of the whole enterprise. Thus, his competence, vision, and qualities of leadership usually are fundamental to the success of the activity program.

SOUND POLICIES ESSENTIAL

School practices sometimes discourage or forbid participation. Such practice may be based upon a short-sighted policy. For instance, the use of grades as a criterion of membership in activities is still fairly common. Of course, grades should help determine eligibility for the National Honor Society, and for those activities that require a mossure of demonstrated competence for participation. Good marks are not, however, necessarily an indicator of leadership, and they are obviously irrelevant to success in many activities.

When low grades bar a pupil from extraclass activities in which he might learn more than he does in classes, they are being used punitively. "Not so," many teachers argue, "the pupil with low grades needs to study during the time he might spend in an activity." Perhaps he does, but will he? And are



we indeed so reluctant to let a student decide that we will not let him make a choice that usually costs him no more at the most than two or three hours a week? Don't we believe that success in one school-connected activity might help him attain success in another?

Teachers and administrators should urge the adoption of the policy of funding student activities by school boards. This would remove the obstacle presented by excessive costs to members participating in an activity. The "hidden costs" of free public education always seem prohibitive to adults at the time the costs are published. Much of this "hidden cost" is the expense to pupils taking part in the co-curricular program. For many years educators have argued that if extraclass activities are part of the educational program, they should be paid for by tax money. Not much progress has been made, except in the case of activities such as music, art, and dramatics, which whave moved from the co-curriculum into the curriculum.

Now, however, most schools have to assess members of extraclass activities for costs. Pupils can reduce the amount each person must pay by earning money for their organizations in legitimate enterprises such as car washes and cake sales. These cooperative undertakings can have educational value, but they may also infringe upon businessmen's operations and become community nuisances. Pupils may learn more from efforts to keep costs down than from their entrepreneurial ventures.

A principal has to keep reminding advisers that many pupils may be unable to participate if membership in an activity costs too much. After all, young teachers are products of an affluent society too. Until recent publicity about the "socially disadvantaged," they had little realization that people who live off the freeways near the centers of cities and in many rural area may be less able financially than they. A ceiling of expenditures that changes as money values change might be helpful as a guide to advisers.

Yearly surveys to determine current student interests ought to be standard practice in schools. They keep the faculty abreast of changing interests and help them find out what



nonparticipants like to do. Also, yearly evaluations of the total program, to detect which activities ought to be eliminated, should be standard practice.

BETTER PUBLICITY HELPS

The extracurricular program, especially athletic events, receives more publicity in local newspapers than does the school's academic program. Such publicity often encourages critics to condemn the school as a place of play. "Better publicity," then, does not imply more publicity of the same kind, for a school might, in fact, be better off with less. It means better in the sense that the publicity is comprehensive, covering all activities and explaining what members do and how and why they do it. Good publicity is also comprehensive in dissemination—the story is told in many ways and places: bulletin boards, assemblies, homerooms, handbooks, news releases to parents, and school and city newspapers.

Publicity has two purposes: to explain to school patrons what pupils learn from extraclass activities ¹⁴ and to metivate students to participate. Generally, but not always, parents and the public at large can infer from the group's accomplishments what members of the group learned. Students' comments about what they learned can sometimes enliven a news story and give adults a clearer idea of the activity's functions. At the same time, such comments point to individual accomplishments. For motivational purposes, recognition for both individual and group achievements is preferable to recognition for only group achievements.

RECOGNITION AND PARTICIPATION

Much has been written about point systems that give pupils so many points for various jobs they do in an extraclass activity. The systems vary from school to school, but they are all designed to increase participation of some pupils by limiting participation of others. A popular, ambitious pupil is prevented from "walking away with all the prizes" because nobody can earn more points than a designated number within the



school year. Since the number of points awarded is based upon the amount of work a position requires, a point system is useful to counselors in helping pupils decide whether they should undertake a particular task. These systems have been more effective in limiting the activities of the zealous than they have been in encouraging the disinterested to participate.

Awards for service have often been tied to point systems. Under this plan, a pupil can, by working hard in many organizations, accumulate enough points to win an award, but he will be more likely to earn one if he holds positions of leadership. As strong a case can be made for rewarding nonathletic participants as for honoring athletes. Awards are, in fact, in line with adult practices. The recognition that a recipient receives enhances his ego and spurs him on to further achievements. Such recognition may also serve to inspire others to try for a similar honor. But a system of awards has drawbacks. The chief disadvantage is that awards incorporate the inherent dangers of academic grades: pupils may work for awards and not for the experiences they may attain from the activity. Awards may also encourage unhealthy competition.



Improving
Student
Participation

Meeting Student Needs

SOME TIME AGO, a fifth grade teacher corrected a boy's spelling. "David Montgomery, will you ever learn to spell?" she asked despairingly.

David, the son of a wealthy family, patted her arm consolingly. "Don't worry, Mrs. Jones. I don't really need to learn how to spell. All the Montgomerys have secretaries."

When educators glibly talk about the needs of youth they are often thinking, as Mrs. Jones, about what they think the young need. What teenagers themselves think they need may differ materially from the needs adults attribute to them. Obviously education cannot be based solely on what young people think they ought to learn, but student activities must appeal to felt needs if for no reason other than that, in most schools, participation is voluntary. That is, if pupils don't want to take part in extraclass activities, they don't have to.

What adolescents themselves view as something they need motivates their behavior. If they will indeed become active members of a group when they think participation will help them get what they want, identifying the most compelling needs that such participation may satisfy is useful in planning for better participation. Let's not be concerned with their future needs, such as vocational competence, although some future needs—for instance, creative use of leisure and good citizenship—are nearly the same as their current needs. We must concede, however, that even though pupils may think they want to be good citizens, they really want peer acceptance much more.



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On the one hand, what motivates a pupil to join an organization may have little relationship to its stated goals. On the other hand, what motivates him to work hard for the goals of the group is usually, but not necessarily, relevant to these goals.

In any case, why a pupil does what he does is almost always a result of complex motives. In analyzing why the youngest girls in one high school joined the Roller Skating Club, Gordon concluded that membership gave them evenings away from home with boys in a place to which their parents would not have let them go unchaperoned. The Club helped them make the transition from dependent to independent status. It provided contacts with boys. In short, he quips, the Club's slogan might well have been, "Girls who date needn't skate." 15

"To capitalize, for educational profit, important fundamental drives" is the first objective of extracurricular activities, according to McKown. We can hardly doubt that somehow "important fundamental drives" are at work in the activity program, but they are seldom capitalized "for educational profit." In some instances, these drives are not recognized by advisers, and even when recognized, they may not activate the kind of motivations that the school wishes to encourage.

SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE OF ALL, BETTER PARTICIPATION

A school faculty that does not actively seek to lessen competition for a few esteemed positions and to expand opportunities for all pupils to be accepted by his peers tolerates a school in which many pupils suffer untold agonies. In 37 schools studied by Brinegar, a third of the pupils who were not enrolled in extraclass activities said they wanted to be. Most of these boys and girls were in the first two years of high school. They knew what some of their teachers failed to recognize: the easiest way for them to gain social acceptance was by achieving a modicum of success in the activity program.

The process of maturing leads to inconsistencies in attitudes and behavior. The adolescent is likely to scorn adult materialism and expediency, and to feel morally superior to



grownups. He is often indignant about injustices, especially to persons far away from his home. At the same time, he may be very cruel to another adolescent who is too fat or to one who comes from "across the tracks." He is very sympathetic with the poor in the abstract, yet he joins his gang in mimicking and ridiculing some of his contemporaries who, in some way or another, are different. Because his gang rejects some boys and girls, he feels that he must do so too. He is callous to his victims' suffering, although he himself has in other situations felt rejected and unhappy. The adult who can look back to the "carefree days" of adolescence either was an unusual adolescent or has a short memory.

What, then, can members of the staff do to modify such a status-seeking, "dog-eat-dog" attitude? They can actively try to change the "intangible spirit" of the school. They can appeal frequently to student leaders to include as many boys and girls as possible in activities. They can remind them of the necessity to keep costs of activities low so that all pupils can afford to participate. They can appeal to school loyalty, to the altruism of youth, to young peoples' sympathy for the underdog. Someday school leaders may boast that every member of the junior class had some part—actor, musician, usher, stage hand, artist—in the class play. The faculty members can help set up many prestige pyramids. Rather than one queen contest, they can sponsor several. They can see that every young person is encouraged to make his contribution to the school and that he is recognized for it.

Whatever the staff does, an element of competition for status will always remain. Some jobs and some organizations will continue to have more prestige than others, and if the prestige comes with superior achievement, they should have it. But a healthy climate of opinion and opportunities for all lessens the harm done to losers in a race. Fortunately, most students keep their aspirations in line with reality. (Girls who knew they had no chance of being queen were not hurt. They had long since sought recognition in other ways.)

But what can a sponsor do to help an adolescent gain acceptance from his peers? Some students, even in a school in which



most pupils are accepted, will be ignored or disliked. The first step is to get every pupil into an activity. How to do this will be discussed later. At this point, let's assume that a student has joined a club and has been rather coolly received by other members.

Not every newcomer who fails to win the liking of other teenagers has the same problem. He may be a bully or a bad sport, have a body odor or a bizarre taste in dress, lack social skills or tact, be shy, talkative, aggressive, sissy, or display other characteristics unattractive to others. Whatever his problem, each of these young people needs the adviser's help. The adviser need not, however, be a psychologist. All he needs is a genuine respect for human beings, the capacity to see the weaknesses of teenagers as signs of immaturity, a rudimentary knowledge of mental health, and the ability to guide the interaction in the group so that the isolate will be able to win friends.

The adviser's attitude is a significant influence upon the group. If the adviser joins the group in criticizing and rejecting a pupil, that pupil has little chance of ever really belonging to the group. If the adviser listens to what the group says about the isolate as well as to the isolate himself, learns something of his background, seeks to understand his behavior and to interpret it to those who can help him, the objectionable behavior may in time be modified. In some instances, an adviser may change a teenager's behavior by tactful advice and friendly instruction in social skills. In a few cases, of course, the behavior may indicate deep-seated abnormalities that can be treated only by a psychologist or a psychiatrist. Most adolescents, however, do not need psychological care, and are more likely to adjust to group expectations and to modify undesirable practices as an outcome of group interaction than because of the adult leader's advice.

For this reason, the successful adviser studies the social relationships within his organization. He may find a sociogram useful for this purpose.* In many student activities, the work is

^{*}A sociogram, a chart depicting social relationships within a group, is derived from a sociometric test. Students are asked a question, such as, "With whom would you like to work on a



done by subcommittees. If an unpopular adolescent is assigned to work with students he likes, these students are likely to accept him. A sociometric test helps not only to tell the adviser those whom the isolate likes but also to indirectly tell the other students that he likes them. Since they did not choose him, they will know that he must have chosen them. Adolescents, like most people, tend to accept those who they believe like them.

If the adviser's rapport with the group's leaders is what it ought to be, he can take them into his confidence and solicit their aid in helping an isolate. If the isolate has talent, he can be encouraged to use this talent in contributing to the group's goals Recognition for such a contribution often has a salutary effect upon the general behavior of a pupil who heretofore has been unable to win acceptance.

The way in which leaders of an extraclass activity behave is another factor in promoting or retarding acceptance of all members. It these leaders encourage all members to join in planning activities, if they delegate responsibilities, if they publicly give credit where credit is due, and if they treat each member with respect, the group will become a cohesive unit.

ENCOURAGE INDIVIDUAL RECOGNITION

Just as the isolate responds to deserved recognition, so do other members of a group. Every adolescent wants to feel that committee?" Students then list the names of those persons with whom they wish to work. They are also told that they may list the names of those with whom they do not wish to work. The responses are then collated and the relationships among students charted on a sociogram.

A sociogram helps the adviser identify the "best liked" and "least liked" members, cliques, twosomes, threesomes, and isolates. It does not tell the adviser why these relationships exist or how long they will last, but it does give him a guide to better placement of members in work groups. This information should probably not be shared completely with student leaders, but in certain situations the adviser may make suggestions, admittedly based upon the sociometric test, that will help the leaders in appointing members to committees.



he "belongs" in an important way—his opinion is respected, his talent is used, and whatever role he plays contributes to the well being of the group.

The recognition accorded a member need not be official nor in any sense formal. A smile, a tone of voice, a simple "well done," a brief remark, "John suggested that we do" thus and so, from an adviser, leader, or another member serve the purpose. Sometimes a member's role becomes so well-established that the adviser and group members refer to a particular pupil as "our expert on lighting," "our writer," "our salesman," or by some other title. If earned, the unofficial title becomes a form of praise that spurs the student to further accomplishment.

The only rule that should govern the giving of recognition is that it be deserved. Usually even a mediocre or poor performance has in it some element worthy of commendation.

The formal recognition given members serves another purpose; it helps to recruit new members. When a news story commends the contributions of members as well as officers of an organization, other adolescents realize that opportunities exist for them to really work in this organization. An assembly program based on the group's activities has the same effect.

Although these remarks on individual recognition are brief, the need for advisers and student leaders to give frequent and appropriate recognition to members is great. Despite their surface sophistication, adolescents are generally unsure of themselves. They are trying new roles, experimenting with being independent, wanting to become mature. A little praise goes a long way in helping them attain the security and maturity they seek.

MEANINGFUL TASKS PROMOTE PARTICIPATION

In organizations having specific tasks that members consider worth doing, the adviser's role is relatively easy. What is to be done is readily apparent in athletic, newswriting, theater, and other performing groups. In many extraclass activities, such as a Science Club or a History Club, however, the task is less apparent.



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The task is important to the success of an organization for several reasons. First, the task determines to a considerable extent the formal structure of the group. In other words, the adviser and student leaders cannot set up the committees needed, select appropriate channels of communication, and use the available talent until they know what job is to be done. Secondly, the job to be done is usually the goal in the minds of members. Thus, they are united by a common task if they think it worth doing. Although what the group does may not be the chief attraction for members, they are much more likely to become active members if the work interests them. Finally, the task is important because it can meet the adolescent's need to feel that he is engaged in a valuable undertaking.

In the no-man's-land of adolescence in which child's play is boring and adult work forbidden, teenagers have great need for meaningful activities. The addiction of adolescents to fads and crazes is, in effect, their attempt to find diversion. Their need for diversion would be less compelling if they were fully committed to something. Adults view school work as adolescents' jobs, but studying rarely requires their full energies or enlists their total commitment. Providing meaningful work for adolescents, then, is one of the unique functions of extraclass activities.

The work of an activity depends, of course, in part upon its designation as a student council, homeroom, Art Club, Language Club, History Club. The student council's work has become increasingly well delineated, but the work of the homeroom has never been clearly defined. Probably no other factor is more important in accounting for the widespread use of student councils and the declining number of homerooms. This factor also accounts for certain clubs flourishing in some schools and being weeded out in others. In other words, the club that provides significant jobs for all members is probably the one that survives.

To some extent, a club operates within a particular field of interest. But irrespective of designation, any club can select specific projects which call for creative endeavor and involve social service and constructive thinking on community, national,



or world affairs. In view of the school's objective in citizenship training and pupils' need for meaningful work, probably every club ought to have a social service task. In other words, every school club, regardless of its academic or hobby connection should be a service club. The History Club may collect old letters, newspapers, and books for libraries; the Art Club can make posters for community welfare drives and school functions; the Shop Club might make or repair toys for children's hospitals; the Literature Club can read to old people in convalescent homes; the Science Club may collect fossils and rocks for museums or take children on hikes to show them wild life. In any community, social service projects such as these can be designed for members of every school organization.

Encouraging teen gers to think constructively about community, national, and world affairs is a more difficult undertaking than creating opportunities for them to serve their communities. The dimensity is that teenagers want to tackle problems which are beyond their ability to solve, and community adults often reject their ideas for local improvements even when their suggestions are reasonable. Members of extraclass activities expect action. They are disappointed and disillusioned when they don't get immediate results.

To prevent a club from becoming demoralized by its failures, an adviser must help leaders evaluate the choice of a project and scale it down to reasonable proportions. Various possibilities exist. For example, participants in a Language Club may gain insights into foreign cultures by exchanging letters, tapes, and simple artifacts with teenagers in another country. Science Club members can locate breeding places of harmoul insects and report them to health officials; student council representatives might endeavor to enlist the support of many organizations in converting an abandoned building into a Teenage Center.

Almost any project offers opportunities for creative endeavor. Devising social as well as mechanical inventions, interpreting research findings as well as designing research, thinking as well as painting are creative tasks. Most people are inclined to restrict the use of the word "creative" to art, music, literary,



and similar kinds of projects. Such projects may be, in fact, social in effect as well as creative in the demands they make upon participants. For example, when students in an Art Club paint murals on the boards shielding construction projects or when they decorate store windows rather than "tricking and treating" merchants on Halloween, their projects are both creative and social.

ADULT PARTICIPATION VALUABLE

The sponsor or adviser of an activity gives teenagers some contact with an adult in an informal situation, but a single relationship of this sort is not enough. Much of the difficulty that arises when young people attempt to solve community problems can be eliminated if they are allowed to join forces with members of adult service clubs interested in the same problem. Such a relationship also is profitable for the adviser and indirectly for the school. The Key Club's relationship with Kiwanis is the kind of interaction that is desired. If advisers persuade local service clubs to work with student groups, the principal may have to lengthen lunch periods or make some other schedule concession in order to permit adult and youth groups to meet together. The benefits from such an interchange of ideas usually justify a change in schedules.

In addition to working with adult service clubs, teenagers should be permitted and encouraged to join the PTA and any other adult group in which they can work as partners; for instance, Little Theater groups, community symphonies, and Great Books Clubs. Interest in these extraschool activities may be stimulated by activities in the co-curriculum.

MORE DELEGATION OF RESPONSIBILITIES

Every student should have a part in every extraclass activity to which he belongs. He cannot be assured a part unless an adviser aids student leaders in planning the distribution of responsibilities. Student leaders, and sometimes advisers, may not really want to delegate responsibility because they enjoy the limelight themselves. They may also fear the consequences.



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Nevertheless, delegation of responsibility to each member is an essential ingredient of a successful extraclass activity.

GROUP PLANNING STIMULATES PARTICIPATION

If members of an activity feel that they have had little or no part in choosing their projects, they are likely to have little interest in working on them. They also like to feel that they made the decisions on how the work will be done and who will be in charge of various phases of the activity. If these conditions are met, the project is theirs, and they are involved in its success or failure.

The need for group planning does not relieve the adviser and student leaders of another kind of planning. They must do the spade work in identifying suitable projects from which members may choose and in deciding what qualifications are needed by those who are selected for different jobs. They cannot, however, allow themselves to become committed to a particular project or "sold on" a particular candidate for a job before the group has reached its decisions. Advisers are likely to be reluctant to accept as leaders some of the pupils chosen by the members, although other adolescents are usually better judges of their contemporaries than are adults.



Improving Student Participation

The Adviser's Role

N ADVISER'S RESPONSIBILITIES differ in several ways from those of a classroom teacher. One of his duties is to train leaders in techniques of leadership and organization. In other words, he imparts principles of human relationships and democratic behavior to student leaders who in turn practice these principles and instruct other group members in their use. He is also responsible for the social integration of his group. In carrying out this duty, the adviser works largely through his leaders in an effort to improve group processes, but he also provides tactful assistance for individual members who need it. Still another responsibility which he shares with group leaders is directing the activities of the organization so that it accomplishes its objectives.

The role of an adviser, then, is that of a knowledgeable but generally nondirective counselor. For the most part, he works behind the scenes, training students to act responsibly on stage.

Some teachers find this role difficult to play for several reasons. One reason is teachers' fondness for talking. Observers calculate that teachers do from 70 to 90 percent of the talking in the average classroom. If teachers acting as advisers talk as much as the student leaders do, they (the teachers) almost certainly will dominate the decision-making process. If they do, they defeat a major purpose of the co-curriculum: allowing pupils to learn how to make decisions and how to plan independently.

Another reason why some teachers find an adviser's role



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difficult is that they are impatient. Rather than watch and wait while pupils fumble in trying to do a job, they do it for them. When a pupil makes an error of fact or an unwise suggestion, they hasten to correct him. Many teachers don't realize that if they had waited, another pupil would probably have made the same points. If nobody challenges the pupil's statement, made during a leisurely-paced informal discussion, the adviser still has time for a tactful correction.

An adviser may also be reluctant to let students make mistakes because he is afraid that the poor judgment underlying the mistakes will reflect unfavorably upon his leadership. An adviser does need assurance that his administrator will apport him when students make mistakes. And parents should be told in what areas pupils are expected to be responsible and why they have been given certain responsibilities.

Other teachers find the adviser's role difficult or uncongenial to their concerns because they underestimate its importance in the process of educating young people. Just as teaching academic subjects is a more prestigious undertaking than teaching nonacademic subjects, so teaching any subject, in the opinion of most teachers, is more prestigious than sponsoring an extraclass activity. An adviser's responsibilities and his potential influence upon pupils are often underestimated by parents and the public at large, who view student activities as a form of play, and by principals, who assign teachers supervisory duties in a student activity without reducing their teaching loads.

Furthermore, some teachers think working with a student activity may undermine their position in the classroom. They have heard of the "invisible line" which should separate students and teachers and have been advised not to cross it. They think that by becoming partners with students, they may lose the students' respect. The truth is that a student who knows an adviser well rarely abuses the relationship in a classroom. If antagonisms develop, they are more likely to arise from an adviser's showing favoritism for students whom he knows well in extraclass activities than from student-initiated actions.

In view of these conditions, it is surprising how effective



many teacher-advisers are. Undoubtedly they are teachers who genuinely enjoy being with young people and sincerely respect them and their talents. Often their objectives as advisers—beyond the immediate job at hand—are vague, and their occasionally erratic leadership reflects their lack of training for their role. Yet they often succeed in winning the affection of students and praise from parents and administrators. How much more effective their efforts could be if they conscientiously assumed the proper role of the adviser, fully grasped its significance, and accorded it the status it deserves.

To help the adviser do this, the paragraphs that follow discuss some techniques that he may find helpful. They are grouped under headings that reflect his three primary responsibilities: training of leaders, integrating the group, and achieving the organization's tasks. These three areas are not, however, separate, as the headings may seem to suggest, nor should the adviser forget that student leaders share the responsibility for the group's social integration and its achievements.

TRAINING LEADERS FOR PARTICIPATION

Leadership always reflects social values of some kind, and it can take different forms. What may constitute effective leadership in one situation may not be as effective in a contrasting social setting. Americans share many social values. Thus, studies of the behavior of adult leaders in this country are useful in determining the kinds of behavior that youthful leaders need to emulate.

After studying the behavior of adult leaders in several different occupations, Halpin concludes that successful leadership depends upon high quality in two dimensions. The first dimension, he calls, "Structure in Interaction." Structure means that the leader delineates relationships between himself and members of the group; establishes well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the jobs done; and encourages followers not to be dependent upon him for new and specific instructions when an unexpected problem arises. The second dimension, the human relations aspect, he labels "Consideration." If the leader's behavior



shows "consideration" of followers, it reflects friendship, trust, respect, and warmth.¹⁶

The leadership behavior of students differs, of course, in several ways from that of the aircraft commanders, factory foremen, school administrators, and chairmen of college departments studied by Halpin, but the same dimensions are operative to some extent. Student leaders, like adult leaders, need to establish well-defined patterns of organization, encourage initiative, and, in large groups, provide for channels of communication. Their behavior, if effective, needs also to be markedly considerate.

Specifically, then, an adviser helps the leaders organize the group. He helps them draw an organizational chart fixing definite responsibilities for specific tasks to be done by divisions, committees, and subcommittees as required by the nature of the association and by the size of the group. He urges leaders to prepare a calendar of events, to set deadlines for work to be completed, and to schedule progress reports to the leaders and to the group as a whole. He encourages the leaders, particularly the president and vice president, to view their roles as executives, instigators of action, sparkplugs, but not doers of all jobs. He reminds them that only members who have a part, who really work, are likely to be interested in attaining the organization's goals.

Elected student leaders are usually friendly and warm in their relations with other students. These characteristics are, in fact, often largely responsible for their being elected. Most of them, nevertheless, can still improve their relationships with others. Consequently, the adviser needs to point out the importance of giving credit due for all suggestions and contributions. He advises leaders to praise in public and rebuke in private. He tries to help them realize that they undoubtedly feel much more secure and accepted in the group than do many members; hence, as leaders they should be outgoing in their dealings with members and make them feel welcome. Leaders are encouraged to listen intently to suggestions, and if members reject these ideas, to be sure that the person making the suggestion understands why. In many other small ways, the



adviser teaches leaders how to make all participants feel that they are important to the group.

But the analogy between the behavior of adult and student leaders does not extend to all aspects of a student leader's behavior. Although the behavior of adult leaders may be democratic to a degree, they are generally not concerned with educating their subordinates in democratic practices. Student leaders are—or they ought to be. Since one of the objectives of any school organization should be the education of its members in democratic practices, a sponsor is obliged to teach student leaders what such practices are.

Misconceptions about democratic practices that students may have harbored for years will need clarifying. important of these misconceptions has to do with interpretations of freedom. Teenagers tend to define freedom as the absence of restraint, whereas it is better defined, in the words of Cicero, as the right to participate in power. Degrees of freedom in any society are limited by law, economics, acceptance of umpires', arbiters', or employers' decisions, as well as by adherence to accepted ethical and moral codes. Operating within such restraints, usually a man considers himself free if he has a voice in making the decisions that determine his destiny. Democracy assumes, moreover, that a man is not solely guided by his own selfish interests but that he is also concerned about the welfare of others. It further assumes that the wisest decisions are usually based on the best considered judgments of all members of a group and that a democratic leader is never a despot, even a benevolent despot. That is, he does not decide what is best for a group and manipulate its members by cajolery, prestige, propaganda techniques, or emotional appeals.

American young people are well aware that a basic freedom, guaranteed by our constitution, is the right to speak one's mind freely. What they may fail to recognize is that even unpopular views must be heard, not rudely shouted down. They are also eager to vote before they have thoroughly discussed all the alternatives and gathered all the evidence needed to make a wise decision. Once a vote has been taken, they



are often so willing to abide by majority rule that they refuse the minority its right to try to change the decision later.

An adviser who seeks to make an extraclass activity a democratic microcosm will help the president understand his role as leader of group sessions. He coaches the president in the ways a presiding officer can help in decision-making: by focusing the group's attention upon the goal or problem, by listening intently to contributions from each member, by restating in his own words the member's ideas so that no opinion is low, by finding common ground when divergent suggestions are offered. Thus, the president is led to see himself as a synthesizer, a clarifier, and a peacemaker.

The adviser impresses con the student leader the need to explore the consequences of proposed alternatives and the need, at times, to seek more information before decisions are made. In all situations the adviser encourages the leader to solicit the aid of all members in solving problems, to demonstrate a concern for the rights of others, and to exhibit a willingness to compromise in reaching decisions.

Since an assumption of concern for the well-being of others underlies democratic theory, the adviser tries to develop a sense of social responsibility by exposing pupils to situations that will develop their social sensitivities. He fans the interest of student leaders in school and community projects that will require doing things for other people. He knows that doing useful work gives an outlet for the idealism of young people and teaches them the intrinsic pleasures of altruism at the same time that it molds good citizens.

WORK FOR COHESIVENESS

As already stated and discussed earlier, if members feel accepted, they become a cohesive group. A group that is cohesive and fully aware of its goals is psychologically ready for participation. A highly cohesive group is, however, more likely than less cohesive groups to reject a member who disagrees with the group and it is also more likely to attack superiors in a hierarchy.

A few additional techniques to encourage acceptance deserve



comment. An obvious one, though sometimes overlooked, is to make sure that all of the boys and girls know each other by name and that the adviser knows their names. In large high schools a sponsor cannot assume that students know each other. Consequently, a "get-acquainted" session for the purpose of learning each other's names and a bit of each person's biography is useful. Initiation ceremonies and other rituals also serve the purpose of cementing relationships. The adoption of mottoes, songs, organization symbols such as flowers, pins, handclasps, and pledges of loyalty is helpful, too, in creating a feeling of belonging. Such devices, as ancient as Hippocrates, may seem naive to a sophisticated adviser, but their effectiveness in encouraging cohesiveness is not seriously questioned by social psychologists.

An occasional social event for the sole purpose of letting members have fun and enjoy themselves is not out of order. Even adults frequently work better together after sharing an evening of recreation.

But the principal tie that binds a group together is the feeling that each person is an accepted, contributing member, respected for his own worth and willing to work with others for common goals. Several suggestions made earlier relate to how leaders and the adviser can help each member win acceptance.

IMPORTANCE OF ACHIEVEMENT

The adage "Nothing succeeds like success" is as applicable to an extraclass activity as it is to any other endeavor. Pupils want to belong to a winning team. If they get on such a team, they will work to maintain its reputation.

An organization that has no clearly defined objectives is seldom successful because its members don't know what goals they are trying to reach. In fact, most organizations need two sets of simply stated objectives, one for leaders and another for the group as a whole. Some of the officers' objectives should be aims common to all student leaders. They should specify the targets common to all leaders in definitive terms, such as, "to



encourage all members to make a contribution," "to conduct meetings in line with democratic practices," "to work for the acceptance of all members by others," etc. Other objectives should specify goals dictated by the nature of the activity. Similarly, the group's objectives should also be two-fold. They should include aims common to all groups, such as, "to consider carefully all alternatives before making decisions" and "to make a social contribution to the community or school" by doing whatever the group decides. They should also detail the organization's specific goals, such as those a history club would have.

In general, specific objectives — which are more easily evaluated—are preferable to general objectives that may look good on paper but are harder to understand. Leaders of a group, for example, can determine objectively the percentage of members who contribute to group discussions over a period of time, but they will have difficulty determining whether members are "developing responsibility and becoming increasingly self-directive."

A successful adviser encourages leaders to evaluate their own performance frequently and to lead the organization in similar self-evaluations. In other words, the leaders regularly ask themselves and others, "What progress have we made?" "Are we doing this or that?" He also urges them to establish shortterm goals in addition to long-term goals. For example, suppose that members of the International Relations Club have adopted as their year's project a study of "Ceylon Today." Further assume that the study of Ceylon has been divided into several parts: the physical setting, history, religion, political system, family system, schools, customs, and values. Each of these subdivisions is, in fact, a small project with shortterm goals that can culminate in any one of several ways. One project may result in an exhibit of pictures, artifacts, and maps in the school library, another in a news story, still another in an assembly program or some other activity that will provide a climax suitable to that phase of the year's work.

Such short-term goals serve two purposes: (1) they give members a feeling of accomplishment that lifts their morale



and (2) they advertise the organization's program to prospective members. The participants' keen interest and excitement in displaying the group's work may convince others that the organization is really doing something worth doing. Such esprit de corps is contagious.



Improving Student Participation

Points to Remember

In summary, we can say that although the co-curriculum is winning a respected place in the total program of most schools, it seldom fully achieves its stated goals. The quality of participation and the number of pupils enrolled in activities vary widely from school to school. To assure better participation and more of it, a school's faculty has to start with a clear concept of what extraclass activities can be expected to contribute to their school's total educational program.

They need to understand that the aims of extraclass activities are two-fold: to direct into socially acceptable channels the kinds of learning that naturally occur in teenage groups, and to apply and supplement knowledge acquired in classes. Furthermore, if these activities succeed in closely approximating primary group activity, they may achieve other worthwhile results. Pupils benefit by securing appropriate recognition, praise, and companionship. They develop social skills and social sensitivities that help them relate successfully to others. The sense of security they gain from belonging to a student activity in which they are accepted is reflected in high morale and growing self-confidence. They learn how to behave democratically, to cooperate, to make decisions, and to assume responsibility. They get additional practice in skills they have acquired in classes and they have opportunities to explore areas of knowledge in depth. Teachers who become advisers benefit in turn by improving their relationships with students.

Clearly, then, the primary objective of the co-curriculum is



not to duplicate the curriculum, but rather to tap and develop student resources that cannot be fully developed in classes. Thus, to say that the objectives of extraclass activities and of education in general are the same can be misleading. Confused by this presumed congruence, some people advocate requiring extracurricular activities, and a few schools do, in fact, make them compulsory for all pupils. Such actions indicate a failure to grasp the unique functions of the co-curriculum.

Equally clear is the fact that the high goals of the cocurriculum cannot be accomplished unless student activities are voluntary associations. The closer extraclass activities come to being primary groups, the better. When subjected to the formal discipline of the school, regimented by teachers, and oriented toward academic achievement in the traditional sense, a student activity cannot function successfully.

The goals of student activities are no less important than those of classes, and they are different. The wise school staff recognizes that the goals of student activities complement those of class activities. A vital, effective educational program has need of both.

The school administration can set the stage for better and more participation in the co-curriculum by keeping schools and school groups fairly small, by delegating responsibility to staff, and by providing leadership for the program, particularly as to policy formation and in-service education. By viewing the extraclass program as a whole, the administrators can keep it in balance in relation to the curriculum. They can also equalize assignments to advisers, guard against infringements upon pupil and teacher time, and plan for appropriate publicity, rewards, and diversification of programs.

In effect, the principal is the most dominant single influence in setting the climate of opinion for an activity program in each school, but he cannot do the job alone. At the level of a specific activity, the adviser is the key person with the chief responsibility for making the undertaking successful.

Pupils can be motivated to join student activities and to become active members if they believe that these activities will be of real value to them. They will rate activities valuable



if they feel they are accepted by members of the group, earn recognition for their contributions to group goals, have a real part in setting these goals and in working for them, and consider the goals worth achieving.

An adviser's chief duties are to train leaders, to help to integrate the group socially so that members become cooperative followers, and to help the organization reach its objectives. To discharge these duties, an adviser must play a very different role from that of the classroom teacher. If he carries out his responsibilities successfully, members of his group will demonstrate genuine involvement in the organization's work. Such involvement is exactly what is meant by "better participation," which makes the organization attractive to others and thus motivates them to join.



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